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## **Deprivation and Healthy Food Access, Cost and Availability: A Cross-Sectional Study**

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**Key terms:** Healthy Food Access, Food Deserts, Food Retail Mapping, Healthy Food Basket Survey, Socioeconomic Inequalities in Food Retail.

**Authors contributions:** Sarah Williamson: conducted data collection, statistical analysis and led the journal write up; Megan McGregor-Shenton: conducted data collection, statistical analysis, proof reading and assisted with the journal write up; Bessie Brumble: conducted data collection, statistical analysis and proof reading; Bernice Wright: conducted data collection, statistical analysis and proof reading; Clare Pettinger: provided supervision and feedback throughout the study and assisted with the journal write up.

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30    **Abstract**

31    **Background:** Food access, cost and availability have been identified as determinants of dietary  
32    choice. It has been suggested that these are socioeconomically patterned, however the evidence is  
33    inconclusive. This study investigated whether differences exist in the access to, and cost and  
34    availability of healthy food between areas of contrasting deprivation.

35    **Methods:** An ecological, cross-sectional study was conducted in two of the most and two of the least  
36    deprived wards in Plymouth. Food retail outlets (FROs) ( $n=38$ ) were identified and mapped using  
37    Geographic Information Systems (GIS) to assess ‘physical access’, by foot, to food retail provision.  
38    Healthy food basket (HFB) surveys were conducted ( $n=32$ ) to compare the cost and availability of 28  
39    healthy food items between the more and less deprived areas.

40    **Results:** Areas of poor access to food retail provision were identified in both study areas, with a  
41    higher number of households in the more-deprived areas being affected than in the less-deprived,  
42    after accounting for car ownership levels. Median [IQR] HFB availability was lower in more-  
43    deprived than the less-deprived areas (48%, [33%] *vs.* 75%, [14%];  $P=0.003$ ), and in convenience  
44    stores than supermarkets (54%, [29%] *vs.* 78%, [24%];  $P=0.001$ ). Descriptive summaries revealed  
45    negligible differences in total median HFB cost between the more-deprived and less-deprived areas  
46    (£55.97 *vs.* £55.94), and a larger cost difference between convenience stores and supermarkets  
47    (£62.39 *vs.* £44.25).

48    **Conclusions:** Differences were found in the access to, and cost and availability of healthy foods in  
49    areas of contrasting deprivation. These appeared related to FRO type rather than deprivation alone.

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## 59    **Introduction**

60    The ‘food environment’ has been implicated as a critical determinant of food choice<sup>(1)</sup>. If UK diets  
61    matched nutritional guidelines, almost 70,000 premature deaths from chronic non-communicable  
62    diseases (NCDs) could be prevented annually<sup>(2)</sup>. This is particularly pertinent to low socioeconomic  
63    groups (LSGs), due to the documented social gradient in the nutritional quality of the diet, finding  
64    that those on the lowest incomes consume more salt, sugar and saturated fat, and less fruit and  
65    vegetables<sup>(3)</sup>. However, dietary choice is multifaceted and complex, due to influences from a range  
66    of biological and societal factors<sup>(4)</sup>. Increasingly, research has focused upon the influence of the food  
67    environment on dietary choice, suggesting that food access, cost, and availability may be important  
68    determinants of the nutritional quality of the diet<sup>(5)</sup>.

69    Food access refers to physical access to food retail provision<sup>(5)</sup> and is dependent upon geographical  
70    location and resources such as transport accessibility<sup>(4)</sup>. Geographic Information Systems (GIS) is  
71    considered useful for assessing food retail access<sup>(6)</sup>, due its capacity to map and spatially analyse  
72    data<sup>(7)</sup>. Availability refers to the types of food retail outlets (FROs) in a geographical area, and the  
73    foods that they sell<sup>(8)</sup>. Previous research has measured the availability and cost of healthy food items  
74    using Healthy Food Basket (HFB) surveys<sup>(9,10)</sup>, which have been found to have sufficient sensitivity  
75    to discriminate well between stores<sup>(9)</sup>.

76    It has been suggested that food access, cost and availability are socioeconomically patterned, with  
77    research from the United States (US) finding that lower income areas have lower access to healthy  
78    foods<sup>(11)</sup>. Specifically, it was observed that the FROs in these areas offered lower healthy food  
79    availability, whilst also charging higher prices<sup>(12,13)</sup>. Areas where it is difficult to purchase healthy  
80    food items at a reasonable price are referred to as ‘Food Deserts’<sup>(13)</sup>. The existence of Food Deserts  
81    is widely accepted in the US<sup>(14)</sup>, however is vigorously debated in the literature elsewhere<sup>(13,15)</sup>.

82    In the United Kingdom (UK), a comprehensive review of the evidence concluded that “Food Deserts  
83    do exist in the UK, but only for individuals who do not or cannot shop outside of their immediate  
84    locality, and when the locality itself has poor retail provision of healthy foods”<sup>(13)</sup>. It has previously  
85    been shown that deprived areas have reduced access to shopping facilities<sup>(16)</sup>, which has been  
86    attributed to the rise of large, out-of-town superstores that tend to favour car owners<sup>(17)</sup>. As those from  
87    LSGs are less likely to own a car<sup>(18)</sup>, this supports the existence of a social gradient regarding healthy  
88    food retail provision. However, a more recent systematic review contradicted this finding, concluding  
89    that unsubstantial evidence exists to suggest that food access is socioeconomically-patterned in the  
90    UK<sup>(14)</sup>. Research into the relationship between the food retail environment and dietary intake is still  
91    underdeveloped in the UK<sup>(5)</sup>, and therefore the evidence remains inconclusive.

92 It is clear that more UK-specific research is needed regarding healthy food provision in the food retail  
93 environment. Therefore, this study aims to explore whether the level of deprivation affects the access  
94 to, and the cost and availability of, foods representative of a healthy diet.

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## 116 **Methods**

### 117 **Study Design**

118 This exploratory ecological cross-sectional study investigated healthy food retail access in areas of  
119 contrasting deprivation in Plymouth; a South West UK coastal city. FROs were identified using  
120 primary and secondary data sources, and were mapped using GIS to determine areas of poor physical  
121 access, by foot, to food retail provision. Healthy food availability and cost were assessed and  
122 compared using a HFB survey. All data were collected during one week in May 2016, to minimise  
123 seasonable variations in food availability and cost.

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### 125 **Food Retail Outlets**

126 In line with previous research, the food retail environment was investigated and compared at electoral  
127 ward level<sup>(19,20,21)</sup>. The Indices of Multiple Deprivation (IMD) Electoral Wards Rank<sup>(22)</sup> was used to  
128 identify two of the most and two of the least deprived of the 20 wards in Plymouth, and were grouped  
129 to form two areas of contrasting deprivation. Electoral wards are aggregations of Lower Super Output  
130 Areas (LSOAs), which vary in size to maintain an average population of 1500 residents<sup>(23)</sup>. Identified  
131 wards in this study included St Budeaux and Honicknowle, ranked the third and fourth most deprived  
132 in Plymouth respectively; and Plymstock Dunstone and Plympton St Mary, ranked the two least  
133 deprived. The more-deprived area is comprised of 24 LSOAs and has a total population size of  
134 28,173<sup>(24)</sup>, whilst the less-deprived area, comprised of 21 LSOAs, has a population size of 25,173<sup>(24)</sup>.

135 FROs were consecutively sampled from an extensive list of all identified FROs in the four wards,  
136 generated using secondary data sources including Local Authority databases, Google Maps, Yell.com,  
137 and websites of major food retailers and symbol groups (e.g. Premier). In line with other studies,  
138 500m was deemed a reasonable distance to travel to FROs by foot<sup>(21)</sup> and thus FROs within 500  
139 metres of the ward boundaries were included in the study, because residents on ward boundary edges  
140 would still have access to these FROs<sup>(19)</sup>. Included FROs were superstores (25-60,000 sq.ft.),  
141 supermarkets (3-25,000 sq.ft.) and convenience stores (<3000 sq.ft.), as defined in the UK by the  
142 Institute of Grocery Distribution (IGD)<sup>(25)</sup>. All other FROs were excluded, due to the observation that  
143 food shopping in England is most commonly completed ‘under one roof’<sup>(20)</sup>.

144 To validate the secondary data sources used, all identified FROs were verified visually or by telephone  
145 contact, because primary data collection in the form of field work has been identified as the ‘gold  
146 standard’ for verifying the food environment<sup>(26)</sup>. Due to some identified discrepancies between the

147 classification of FROs on Google and retailers' own websites, the researchers re-classified FROs as  
148 per the IGD definitions. The definition of a convenience store is well-established<sup>(27)</sup>, however due to  
149 practical limitations, store managers were relied upon to verify the classification between supermarket  
150 and superstore. From this, the 39 verified FROs were identified and invited to participate in the  
151 research. Consent to conduct in-store data collection was sought by postal letter and non-respondents  
152 were followed-up in-person.

153 ArcGIS version 10.4<sup>(28)</sup> was used to map the spatial co-ordinates of all 39 verified FROs, and to create  
154 500 metre geographical buffer zones around each. Areas within the ward which fell outside of these  
155 zones were considered to have poor physical access, by foot, to food retail provision. Census datasets  
156 relating to car ownership were also incorporated at LSOA level<sup>(29)</sup>. This was to enable a visual  
157 appraisal of the percentage of households without car availability, that are located in areas identified  
158 to have poor physical access, by foot, to food retail provision.

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## 160 **Healthy Food Basket Survey**

161 The cost and availability of 28 healthy foods were measured using a HFB survey (detailed in **Table**  
162 **1**); an adaptation of the previously validated Healthy Eating Indicator Shopping Basket<sup>(30)</sup> (HEISB).  
163 The intention was to use a range of products representing a healthy, balanced diet, and therefore the  
164 adaptations were designed to better reflect the composition of the Eatwell Guide<sup>(31)</sup> and the South  
165 West UK locality of the study. An adapted version of food item descriptions and list of acceptable  
166 substitutions<sup>(9)</sup> were used to reduce the risk of systematic error during data collection. The costs of  
167 food items were recorded according to the cheapest own-brand product available in the sizes  
168 specified<sup>(9)</sup>. If this information was unavailable, the price-per-kilogram of product was recorded,  
169 along with the product weight, to enable the price-per-unit to be calculated. In line with previous  
170 research, promotional prices were not recorded<sup>(10)</sup>. Informed, signed consent was sought from FRO  
171 managers in order to conduct the surveys.

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## 173 **Data processing and analysis**

174 Data were inputted into Microsoft Excel in duplicate, and cross-checked for consistency by another  
175 member of the research team to improve the inter-rater reliability. All data analysis was conducted  
176 by deprivation level (more-deprived, less-deprived), by FRO type (convenience store, supermarket)  
177 and by FRO subtype (more-deprived convenience stores, more-deprived supermarkets, less-deprived

178 convenience stores, less-deprived supermarkets) categories. No superstores were identified in the  
179 study areas.

180 Consistent with methodology from similar studies<sup>(9)</sup>, to enable price comparisons between the HFB  
181 items across the FROs, varying product sizes were standardised to the specified unit in the substitution  
182 list. For those items without a weight, average weights for these items were determined, using values  
183 from three supermarket websites. Due to the small number of stores which stocked the full HFB a  
184 full HFB cost was calculated by deprivation level and FRO type using median prices-per-item.

185 The Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to determine differences in percentage HFB availability  
186 between deprivation level and FRO type. The Kruskal Wallis ANOVA was also conducted to  
187 determine differences in percentage HFB availability between FRO subtype. Dunns Pairwise  
188 Comparison with Bonferroni adjustment provided post-hoc analysis<sup>(32)</sup>. Statistical analysis was  
189 conducted using Microsoft Excel and IBM SPSS version 22.0<sup>(33)</sup>. Statistical significance was set at  
190  $P \leq 0.05$ .

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## 192 **Ethical Considerations**

193 Ethical approval was granted by the School of Health Professions Bachelor's Degree Ethics  
194 Subcommittee. To minimise risk of reputational harm, FRO data remained anonymous throughout  
195 the study process.

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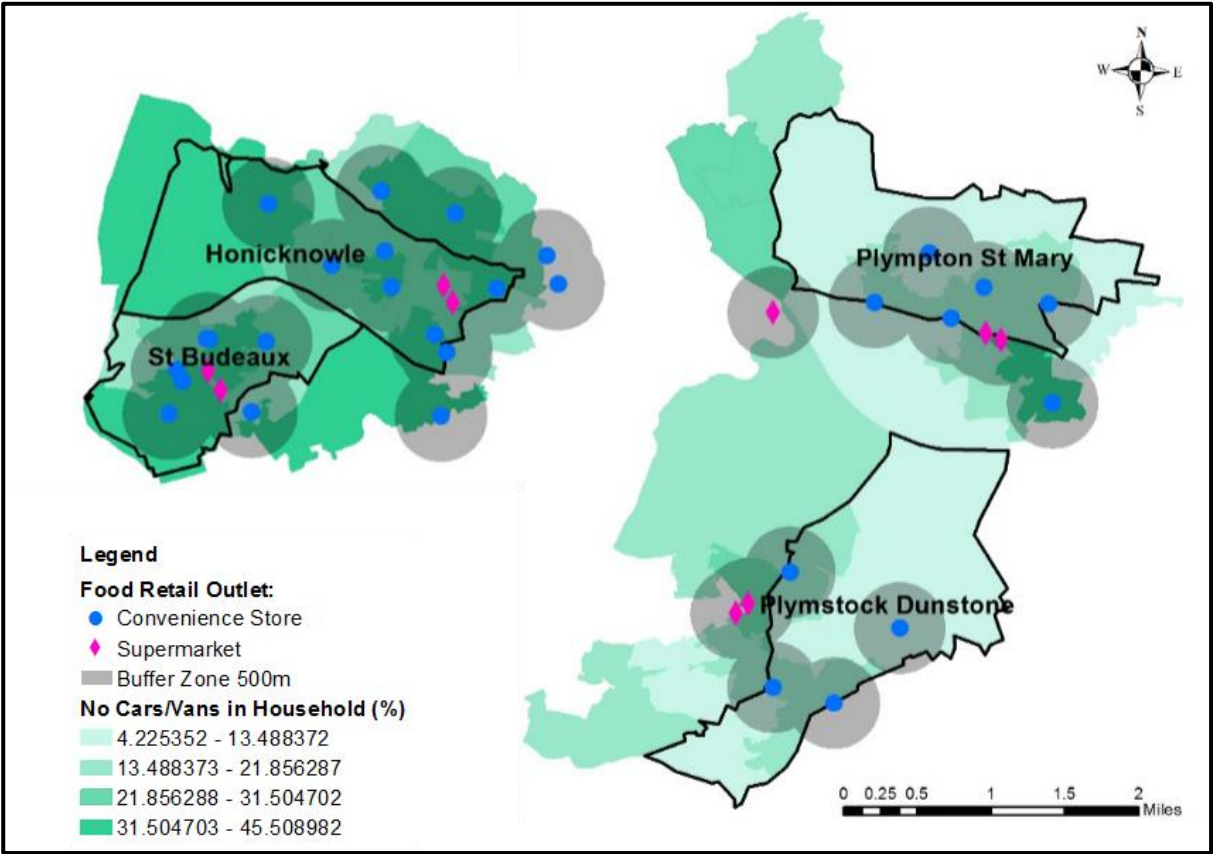
207     **Results**

208     **Food Retail Outlets**

209     Thirty-eight FROs were confirmed within the study areas, of which 32 consented to participate in the  
210     HFB survey, five declined, and one was closed for refurbishment at the time of surveying. The  
211     proportion of the total number of FROs is higher in the more-deprived than the less deprived areas  
212     ( $n=23$  (61%) vs.  $n=15$  (39%), respectively), with a higher proportion of convenience stores to  
213     supermarkets, both in the more-deprived ( $n=19$  (83%) vs.  $n=4$  (17%), respectively) and less-deprived  
214     areas ( $n=10$  (67%) vs.  $n=5$  (33%), respectively). The six non-participants of the survey were equally  
215     matched in terms of deprivation level and FRO type.

217     **Access**

218     All identified FROs are shown in **Figure 1**, including 500 metre geographical buffer zones. Areas  
219     outside of these buffer zones were deemed to have poor physical access, by foot, to food retail  
220     provision. The percentage of households without car availability in these identified areas of poor  
221     access ranged from 13% to 46% in the more-deprived areas and 4% to 22% in the less-deprived areas.



224 **Figure 1** Geographic Information Systems mapping of Food Retail Outlets in the more-deprived  
225 areas (Honicknowle and St Budeaux) and the less-deprived areas (Plympton St Mary and Plymstock  
226 Dunstone). Areas outside of the geographical buffer zones indicate poor physical access, by foot, to  
227 food retail provision, and car ownership data shows the percentage of households without car  
228 availability by Lower Super Output Area.

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### 230 **Healthy Food Basket Survey**

231 Descriptive summaries revealed negligible differences in median HFB cost between the more-  
232 deprived and the less-deprived areas (£55.97 vs. £55.44). However, a larger cost difference was found  
233 between convenience stores and supermarkets (£62.39 vs. £44.25). Subgroup analysis found that the  
234 median HFB cost was lower in both convenience stores and supermarkets in the more-deprived areas,  
235 than in convenience stores and supermarkets in the less-deprived areas (£60.15 and £42.30 vs. £63.60  
236 and £45.48, respectively).

237 Across the 32 FROs surveyed, four (13%) stocked all 28 HFB items, whilst 21 (66%) stocked at least  
238 half of the HFB. Median [IQR] HFB availability was lower in the more-deprived areas compared to  
239 the less-deprived (48% [33%] vs. 75% [14%]; U=195.000, P=0.003), and in convenience stores  
240 compared to supermarkets (54% [29%] vs. 78% [24%]; U=153.500, P=0.001). This data is reported  
241 in **Table 1**. Median HFB availability differed by FRO subtype ( $H^2=16.272$ , P=0.001), with the largest  
242 difference identified between convenience stores in the more-deprived areas and supermarkets in the  
243 less-deprived (P=0.018). Differences in availability were also found between convenience stores in  
244 the more-deprived areas and convenience stores in the less-deprived (P=0.044); and between  
245 convenience stores in the more-deprived areas and supermarkets in the less-deprived (P=0.047).

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**Table 1.** Differences in Availability of Healthy Food Basket Items (%) by Deprivation Level and Food Retail Outlet Type.

	Deprivation Level		Food Retail Outlet Type	
	High (n=20)	Low (n=12)	Convenience Store (n=25)	Supermarket (n=7)
Food Item (n=28)	Stocked <sup>a</sup> (n (%))	Stocked <sup>a</sup> (n (%))	Stocked <sup>a</sup> (n (%))	Stocked <sup>a</sup> (n (%))
Brown rolls	13 (65)	13 (65)	18 (72)	7 (100)
Potatoes	19 (95)	19 (95)	24 (96)	7 (100)
Brown rice	4 (20)	4 (20)	5 (20)	3 (57)
White rice	20 (100)	20 (100)	25 (100)	7 (100)
Pasta	20 (100)	20 (100)	25 (100)	7 (100)
Weetabix	18 (90)	18 (90)	22 (88)	7 (100)
Wholemeal bread	15 (75)	15 (75)	20 (80)	7 (100)
Apples	16 (80)	16 (80)	21 (84)	7 (100)
Bananas	14 (70)	14 (70)	19 (76)	7 (100)
Grapes	12 (60)	12 (60)	16 (64)	7 (100)
Orange	10 (50)	10 (50)	14 (56)	7 (100)
Orange juice	19 (95)	19 (95)	24 (96)	7 (100)
Broccoli	10 (50)	10 (50)	14 (56)	7 (100)
Carrots	12 (60)	12 (60)	17 (68)	7 (100)
Cucumber	14 (70)	14 (70)	19 (76)	7 (100)
Lettuce	13 (65)	13 (65)	17 (68)	7 (100)
Onions	20 (100)	20 (100)	25 (100)	7 (100)
Peas	18 (90)	18 (90)	23 (92)	7 (100)
Peppers	13 (65)	13 (65)	18 (72)	7 (100)
Tomatoes	19 (95)	19 (95)	24 (96)	7 (100)
Semi-skimmed milk	20 (100)	20 (100)	25 (100)	7 (100)
Skimmed milk	14 (70)	14 (70)	19 (76)	7 (100)
Low-fat yoghurt	12 (60)	12 (60)	16 (64)	7 (100)
Lean beef mince	3 (15)	3 (15)	2 (8)	6 (86)
Chicken breast	13 (65)	13 (65)	16 (64)	7 (100)
Salmon	6 (30)	6 (30)	8 (32)	7 (100)
Baked beans	20 (100)	20 (100)	25 (100)	7 (100)
Low-fat spread	10 (50)	10 (50)	14 (56)	7 (100)

<sup>a</sup> Category consists of groups: 'in-stock', 'out of stock, awaiting delivery', not stocked but 1<sup>st</sup> substitute available', not stocked, but 2<sup>nd</sup> substitute available'.

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## 262 Discussion

263 This exploratory study investigated whether deprivation level affects the access to, and cost and  
264 availability of healthy foods. Areas of poor physical access, by foot, to food retail provision were  
265 identified in both study areas. However, within these areas of poor access, local data shows that more  
266 households in the more-deprived areas did not have access to a car or van compared to in the less-  
267 deprived<sup>(29)</sup> (see **Figure 1**). Previous research has failed to demonstrate socioeconomic patterning  
268 regarding the access to healthy food retail provision<sup>(34)</sup>, however it has been found that those living  
269 in the more-deprived areas are less likely to have access to a car<sup>(27)</sup>. Despite their use of taxis<sup>(13)</sup> and  
270 online food shopping<sup>(35)</sup>, individuals without car access are significantly more likely to travel home  
271 from food shopping by foot<sup>(36)</sup>. Therefore, they are likely to be particularly susceptible to changes in  
272 the local food retail environment regarding the provision of healthy food. Interestingly, the more-  
273 deprived areas contained more convenience stores and fewer supermarkets than the less-deprived  
274 areas<sup>(9)</sup>. As less individuals in the more-deprived areas had access to a car or van<sup>(29)</sup>, this suggests a  
275 heavier reliance upon convenience stores for those living in more-deprived areas.

276 In terms of the cost of healthy food, it was expected to find that convenience stores charged more on  
277 average for the full HFB, and that this is supported by existing literature<sup>(13)</sup>. Therefore, it was  
278 surprising that negligible differences were found in the cost of healthy food between the more and  
279 the less-deprived areas. Whilst this aligns with findings by White et al.<sup>(13)</sup>, it contrasts with others in  
280 the literature. Dawson et al.<sup>(9)</sup> found that healthy food cost less in less deprived areas, whilst Cummins  
281 and McIntyre<sup>(12)</sup> found that it cost more. An explanation for this finding is that cost data were only  
282 obtainable for in-stock items, therefore causing a bias towards the FROs that had higher availability  
283 and corresponding lower costs. Previous researchers have also encountered difficulties in comparing  
284 the cost of food baskets<sup>(9,13,21)</sup>, with Beaulac et al.<sup>(14)</sup> attributing the mixed findings to the low  
285 methodological quality of the studies cost comparisons. As such, findings relating to HFB cost in the  
286 present study, and indeed other food basket surveys, should be interpreted with caution. Despite this,  
287 the findings from the present study suggest that the average cost of healthy food is comparable  
288 between areas of contrasting deprivation, however clearly identifies considerable differences in the  
289 cost of healthy food between convenience stores and supermarkets. Considering the higher proportion  
290 of convenience stores in more-deprived areas, this suggests a social gradient in the cost of healthy  
291 food.

292 The differences found in HFB availability between ward deprivation level were expected. On average,  
293 availability was lower in the more-deprived areas compared to the less-deprived. Specifically,  
294 wholegrain carbohydrates, fruit and vegetables, low fat dairy products, lean meats, oily fish and low  
295 fat spread were less frequently stocked in the more-deprived areas (see **Table 1**). This finding accords

296 with previous research<sup>(9)</sup>, and is important because it suggests that residents of deprived areas could  
297 struggle to eat healthily<sup>(37)</sup>; thereby increasing their risk of NCDs<sup>(38)</sup>. However, findings from a larger  
298 study by White et al.<sup>(15)</sup> contradict this, countering that healthy food availability is not  
299 socioeconomically patterned, but is instead associated with store type. It is plausible that the findings  
300 from this small scale local research are a result of the high prevalence of convenience stores in the  
301 most-deprived area, which were found to have a lower availability of healthy foods compared to  
302 supermarkets. This finding is undisputed in the literature<sup>(38)</sup>, and in previous research has been  
303 attributed to the lower demand for healthier and more perishable foods in deprived areas<sup>(15)</sup>.

304 It was interesting to find that the more-deprived areas contained more convenience stores and fewer  
305 supermarkets than the less-deprived areas. This indicates that there is the potential for convenience  
306 stores to influence the food retail environment in deprived communities, where it is suggested that  
307 larger retailers avoid trading due to lower levels of disposable income in these areas<sup>(40)</sup>. Despite  
308 finding that convenience stores offered a lower provision of healthy foods, anecdotal evidence  
309 collected found that some convenience store retailers were willing to stock healthier food items. One  
310 ordered wholemeal bread upon customer request, whilst another stocked competitively priced, fresh  
311 produce variety packs suitable for single household customers. These observations highlight the  
312 potentially pivotal role that convenience store retailers could play in enhancing healthy food provision  
313 in deprived areas, however indicates that some stores could benefit from additional education and  
314 support to replicate this. As households in the more-deprived areas appeared most likely to depend  
315 upon these stores, these promising anecdotal findings warrant further investigation. However, it  
316 should be recognised that there is little incentive for improving the availability of healthy foods if  
317 there is no demand<sup>(41)</sup> and so this recommendation would need to be considered within the wider  
318 determinants of food choice<sup>(42)</sup>. Community and public health dietitians promote the importance of a  
319 healthy diet within their local communities, and so would be appropriately placed to lead this  
320 partnership with convenience store owners.

321 This study provides a unique insight into the food retail environment in areas of contrasting  
322 deprivation in a South West UK coastal city. However, due to the specific locality of the four study  
323 areas, the generalisability of the findings to other areas may be limited. Strengths include the thorough  
324 identification and mapping of food retail outlets, in addition to the comprehensive assessment of HFB  
325 availability, which further validates the previously developed HEISB tool<sup>(30)</sup>. However,  
326 methodological limitations are inherent in all research, and this study was no exception. Firstly, the  
327 study's ecological and cross-sectional design was unable to differentiate cause and effect from simple  
328 association<sup>(43)</sup>. Secondly, the linear ArcGIS assessment of distance is somewhat over-simplistic. The  
329 mapping of walking, driving and public transport routes would have generated the most

comprehensive depiction of the food retail environment, however was beyond the scope of the study. Finally, the approach taken to compare the cost of HFB items has resulted in some being disproportionately adjusted, which has consequently reduced the validity of these findings. Despite the limitations highlighted, the findings from the present study will help to inform research regarding the physical and social determinants of food choice; an area of key importance for public health professionals.

## **Recommendations and Future Work**

This exploratory research provides a better understanding of inequalities in healthy food provision, and offer insight into why individuals from LSGs can fail to adhere to nutritional recommendations<sup>(44)</sup>. The largest scope to make a difference lies in areas where individuals are most reliant upon their local food retail environment, which itself offers poor healthy food provision<sup>(13)</sup>. This highlights an area where public health specialists, public health dietitians and policy makers may have the largest impact. Interventions to increase healthy food provision could be achieved through partnership-working with convenience store retailers, building on the previous successes of Change4Life<sup>(45)</sup>. Such initiatives could include the redesign of store layouts to ensure prominent positioning of healthier foods, and introducing legislation to increase the display of healthier foods at the point of sale and on in-store communications. Additionally, store owners could be encouraged to increase their provision of less-perishable healthier food items<sup>(46)</sup>. It would be interesting to develop this research further, to explore the extent to which the access to, and cost and availability of healthy food influences consumer dietary choice. This could complement research investigating both the influence of the retail provision of unhealthy food<sup>(47)</sup>, and the density and location of fast food outlets, on dietary choice<sup>(48,49)</sup>.

## **Conclusions**

Differences were found in the access to, and cost and availability of healthy foods in areas of contrasting deprivation. These appeared related to FRO type rather than deprivation alone, with convenience stores consistently demonstrating lower healthy food availability than supermarkets, and at a higher cost. Future interventions to improve the access to, and cost and availability of healthy food should concentrate upon the more-deprived communities, and partnership-working between public health professionals and convenience stores could be pivotal in this process.

## 362 Acknowledgements

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364 grateful to Desley White for her support with statistical analysis and to Shaun Lewin, from Plymouth  
365 University's School of Geography, Environmental and Earth Sciences, for his invaluable guidance  
366 with Geographic Information Systems.

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368 **Transparency declaration:** The lead author affirms that this manuscript is an honest, accurate, and  
369 transparent account of the study being reported, that no important aspects of the study have been  
370 omitted and that any discrepancies from the study as planned (and registered with) have been  
371 explained. The reporting of this work is compliant with STROBE<sup>(50)</sup> guidelines.

372

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